

# DWIGHT'S AMERICAN MAGAZINE,

AND

## FAMILY NEWSPAPER.

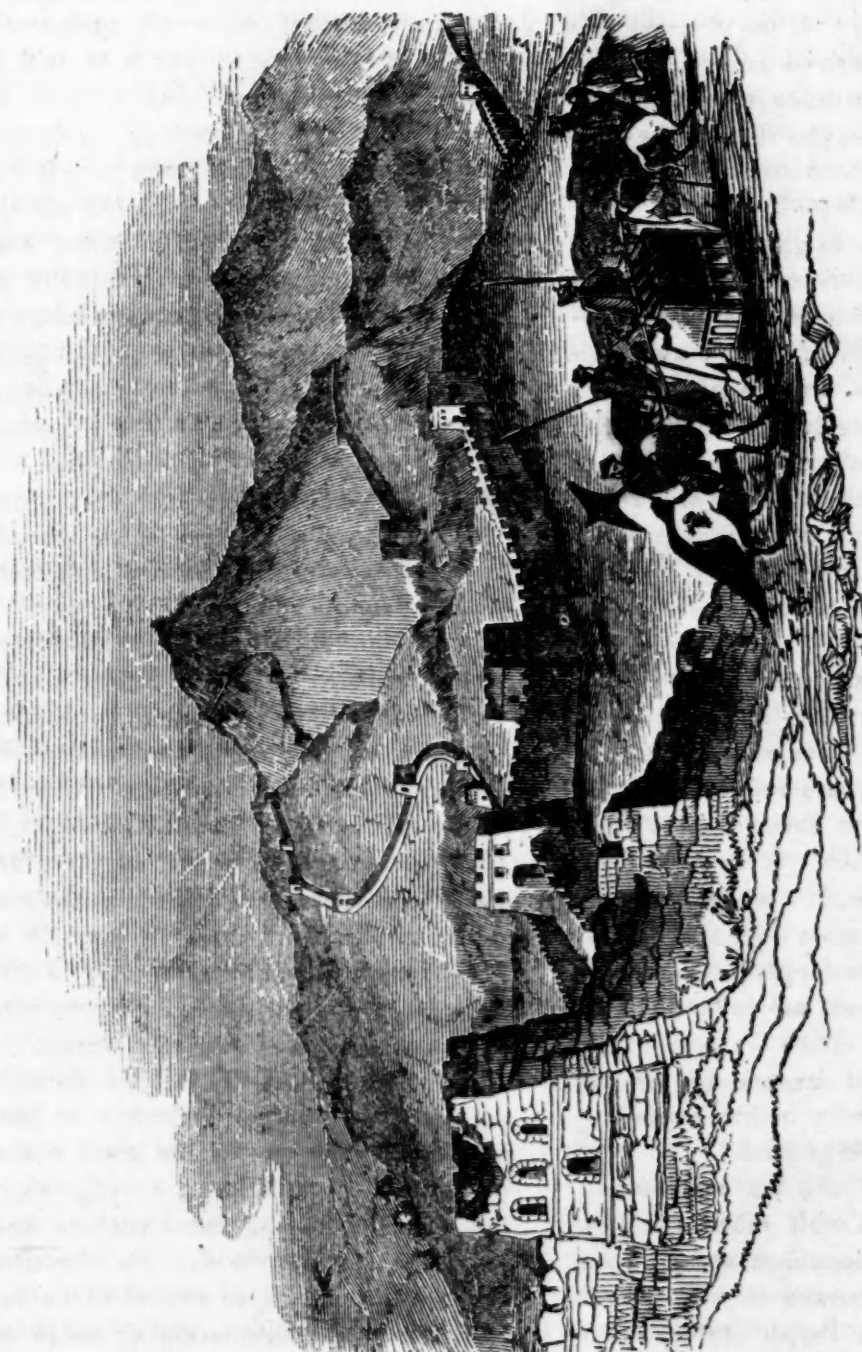
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No. 3.



THE CHINESE WALL.

There are few works of art which have excited at once more wonder and curiosity than the celebrated great wall of China. Until within a few years the information within our reach was very general and unsatisfactory. Our school books and such other works

as were in the hands of most persons, gave merely the facts of the extent of country traversed by this immense work, with estimates of its height and thickness, and left to the imagination the nature of the materials and the manner of construction, with several other

points which we would naturally wish to understand. Happily we are now much better informed, with respect to this, as well as many other things in that most populous, as well as most ancient empire; the observations and enquiries of missionaries, and the changes consequent on the war with England, having brought a large amount of facts before us all, on which we can rely. Some of these, it is true, have been derived from European works of previous dates, whose scarcity had kept them from the view of the common reader, or whose contents had not been fully authenticated.

The successive English embassies to the Chinese emperors contributed largely to the information we now possess respecting the interior of China; and notices or extracts are now to be found in popular works extensively diffused in the country. We abridge from some of those before us, the following account of the Great Wall, as it comprises most of those facts which we can say, for ourselves, we desired to obtain for many years.

"The Great Wall of China was constructed by Chi-hwang-te, of the Tsin dynasty, the first universal monarch of China, about 200 years before the Christian era, to keep the Tartar hordes from invading the empire. It extends from the Gulf of Pechele, in a westerly direction, a distance of more than 1500 miles; descending into the deepest valleys, and ascending the highest mountains, one of which is 5000 feet above the level of the sea. At important passes the wall is doubled. It varies in height according to the nature of the ground."

Lord Macartney and his companions, naturally examined with close attention that part of this immense work at the place where they passed it. They observed, as Captain Parish states, that it was a mass of earth, with a stone foundation, and a wall on each side, formed of large bricks, and terraced with a plat-

form of square bricks. It was 20 feet high, including the parapet, which was 5 feet; while the thickness was 25 feet at the base, and 15 feet at the terrace.

At distances of about 100 yards were towers, about 40 feet in diameter on the ground, and 30 at the summit, to serve as bastions or flankers.

No other human work of which we have any account can at all compare in magnitude with this: yet it is said to have been completed in five years, as one-third of all the men in the empire were required to work upon it. It has even been questioned whether all the great edifices and constructions ever made by the human race comprised an equal amount of labor and materials.

"The important figure which the great wall makes in the maps of China entitles this vast artificial barrier to be considered in a geographical point of view. It bounds the whole north of China, along the frontier of three provinces, extending from the shore of the Gulf of Pechele,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  degrees east of Peking, to Syning, 15 degrees west of that capital. The emperors of the Ming dynasty built an additional inner wall, near to Peking on the west, which may be perceived on some maps enclosing a portion of the province between itself and the old wall. From the eastern extremity of the great wall there is an extensive stockade of wooden piles enclosing the country of Mougden, and this has, in some European maps, been erroneously represented as a continuation of the solid barrier.

"The gentlemen of Lord Macartney's embassy had the good fortune to pass into Tartary by one of the most entire portions of the wall, and a very particular examination of the structure was made by Captain Parish. On the first distant approach, it is described as resembling a prominent vein or ridge of quartz, standing out from mountains of gneiss or granite. The continuance of this line over the mountain-tops arrested

the attention, and the form of a wall with battlements was soon distinctly discerned. It was carried over the ridges of the highest hills, descended into the deepest valleys, crossed upon arches over rivers, and was doubled in important passes, being, moreover, supplied with massive towers or bastions at distances of about one hundred yards. One of the most elevated ridges crossed by the wall was 5000 feet above the level of the sea. It far surpasses, in short, the sum total of all other works of the kind, and proved a useful barrier until the power of Zenghis Khan overthrew the empire of the Chinese.

"The bricks are, as usual in China, of a *bluish* colour, about fifteen inches long, half that in width, and nearly four inches thick; probably the whole, half, and quarter of the Chinese *Chē*, or *covid*. The blue colour of the bricks led to a doubt of their having been burnt; but some ancient kilns were observed near the wall, and, since then, the actual experiment of Dr. Abel in 1816 has proved that the brick-clay of the Chinese, being red at first, burns blue. The thinness of the parapet of the wall, about eighteen inches, justifies the conclusion that it was not intended to resist cannon: indeed, the Chinese themselves claim no such antiquity for the invention of fire-arms. The above description confirms upon the whole that of Gerbillon, about a century before. "It is generally," says he, "no more than eighteen, twenty, or twenty-five geometrical feet high, but the towers are seldom less than forty."

"The same writer, however, informs us, that beyond the Yellow river to its western extremity, or for full one-half of its total length, the wall is chiefly a mound of earth or gravel, about fifteen feet in height, with only occasional towers of brick. Marco Polo's silence concerning it may therefore be accounted for by the supposition that, having seen only this imperfect portion, he did not

deem it an object of sufficient curiosity to deserve particular notice; without the necessity of imagining that he entered China from the westward, to the south of the great barrier."

### Religions and Languages of China.

The Taoist sect are but few in number. Their priests wear their hair on the back of the head, done up in a kind of knot. The worshippers of Buddha compose the vast mass of the people, though this sect is more recent in its origin than either of the others, having been first propagated in China about the time of the destruction of Jerusalem. The number of their temples is great, and their priests, who shave the whole head, are numerous, but their worship is a round of ceremonies and vain repetitions.

Although these three sects are nominally distinct, there is little real difference between them, or rather, the religion of China is a mixture of the whole. The officers of government and the literati pay their devotions alike in the temples of all, imperial gifts are bestowed upon all, and it is not uncommon to see the god of literature and the Kwan Yin of the Buddhists, enshrined in the Taoist temples. The real religion of China, (for there are few who will not laugh at an exposure of the folly of idolatry), is the worship of deceased ancestors, and most of the devotion they exhibit is in making offerings at the tombs. There are a few Jews, some Mohammedans, and about 300,000 Roman Catholics, chiefly descendants of those who embraced this religion in the reign of Kanghi, when the Jesuits had free access to China, and had many converts. Of the language and religion of the bands of mountaineers who yet live unsubdued in some of the Central and Southern provinces, nothing is known.

The language of China is perhaps the most remarkable in the world, for as written, it is understood by educated men all over the empire, but as spoken, it varies in almost every province. The Chinese say, that if they go a hundred miles from their native places in any direction they meet a new dialect. These dialects are not merely slight variations from a common standard. They differ so widely that those who speak either of



the dialects of Canton, Chaou-chow-foo, Amoy, Fuh-chow-foo, Ningpo, or the provinces of Chih-le and Shensi, cannot understand any of the others. In the Northern Provinces, and perhaps in some of the Central and Western ones, the Mandarin or court dialect is generally understood, even by the common people, but in the Southern and Eastern provinces, the case is different. Learned men in all parts of the country understand and often speak the court dialect, but those in the parts just mentioned have to learn it as much as we would French or Latin, and they have often such a pronunciation as makes it difficult for the student of the pure court dialect to understand them. The "Ningpo Mandarin dialect," as it is called by the natives of Ningpo, differs widely in pronunciation from that of Nankin or Pekin.

This diversity and frequent change of dialects is a serious obstacle in the way of missionary labour. He who has learned the dialect of Amoy or Canton, cannot come to Ningpo or Shanghai, and preach to the common people, for they would understand him but little better than if he were a Hindu. Nor is the case much better if he learns the Mandarin dialect, for this is not understood by the mass of the people in the parts of the country to which we have access. He might in that case be understood by literary men, but these are a very small part of the people, not one in a hundred, and it is no new truth or discovery, that the wise and the learned are not the first to receive the gospel, and by learning only this dialect, the missionary could but poorly imitate our Blessed Master, who "preached the gospel to the poor." The missionary to the Chinese must generally expect to learn but one dialect, or at the most two or three, and to confine his labours to only a small part of the country, even as already but partially opened to foreigners. The pure Ningpoo dialect is spoken by probably a million of people, and with some not important variations, by several millions more, so that a person learning even one of the dialects has a wider field before him, than his own personal efforts can ever properly cultivate.

While the spoken language is thus frequently changed, the written is as remarkably uniform. A book correctly written is intelligible (by scholars) in all parts of the country. The written lan-

guage of China is so difficult, that to become able to write it intelligibly and acceptably is the labour of many years, while the spoken languages difficult as they are, may be mastered in half the time. This fact, which accounts in a measure for the different representations made concerning the facility of acquiring the language, seems to intimate not obscurely the propriety of seeking to influence the Chinese chiefly by personal and oral intercourse.—*Miss. Chronicle.*

#### A Thief Reformed.

A Caffree, a fine, tall, athletic young man, addicted to all the debasing and demoralizing customs of his nation, one night resolved to go into the colony for the purpose of stealing a horse, which is a common practice with them. He immediately left home, came into the colony, and watched for an opportunity of accomplishing his purpose, which soon presented itself. He found two horses grazing in a sheltered situation near a bush, and he instantly seized one of them and made off with it as fast as he could. Elated with his success, and rejoicing in the prospect of securing his prize without being detected, he proceeded towards Caffreeland, when all at once the thought struck him, "*Thou shalt not steal.*" He could go no farther. He immediately drew up the horse, and said to himself, "What is this? I have frequently heard these words before in the church, but I never felt as I do now. This must be the word of God."

He dismounted and held the bridle in his hand, hesitating whether to go forward with the horse or to return back with it, and restore it to its owner. In this position he continued for upward of an hour. At last he resolved to take the horse back again, which he accordingly did, and returned home a true penitent determined to serve God. When he reached his dwelling, he could not rest; sleep had departed from him; the arrows of conviction stuck fast in his conscience, and he could not shake them off. The next day he took an ox out of his kraal, or cattle place, and went to the nearest village to sell it, in order that he might buy European clothing with the money and attend the house of God like a Christian. He is now a full member of the Christian church, and adorning his Christian profession.—*Mr. Chalmers.*

**Biography of Fellenberg.***(Concluded from page 23.)*

"He instituted an annual festival, where the farmers of Switzerland were invited to meet and receive premiums for the best specimens of their harvests and flocks. This idea is imitated in France, and produces the happiest results.

Another institution of Mr. de Fellenberg, is 'the School for the Poor,' founded in 1814. He collected foundlings, or orphans, received them gratuitously into his house, and gave them an education adapted to their condition. His principles were very simple: To rescue from physical suffering and moral depravity children without a home;—to train them up in the vigorous and healthy discipline of agricultural labor;—to prepare them, lastly, to be at once pious men, good fathers, useful citizens, laborious husbandmen:—such was the aim which Mr. de Fellenberg pursued with unshaken perseverance. These children were fed, clothed, supported, not in luxury, but in a suitable manner. Their recreations consisted especially in a change of work; they passed from the fields to their books, and from their books to the fields, for Mr. de Fellenberg believed that entire idleness is never good for man.

He was seconded in this excellent work by an instructor named Werkli, who, in his humble sphere, displayed real genius. Werkli loved children; he ate, labored, studied with them. He possessed in a remarkable degree, the difficult art of gaining their affections; he was to them a father, brother, and friend. For twenty years Werkli superintended and instructed these poor children. He attended to their rising up and their lying down; he never left them; and even during their repasts, he found means to cultivate their minds, by explaining to them the phenomena of the physical world, or the great things which the Lord doth for the good of man.

Mr. de Fellenberg was the first to show, by his School for the Poor, how the fearful scourge of pauperism ought to be combatted. He was not afraid to admit into his school young criminals, and to him belongs the first thought of nipping in the bud the first germs of immorality. It is not surprising then, that Hofwyl, with its School for the Poor, became a place of pilgrimage, to which the

most intelligent men resorted, to examine with their own eyes this new institution. Soon similar establishments were founded in almost all the countries of Europe, and even in the East Indies and in New Holland. I have already said that the Americans have also established a School for the Poor, upon the principles of Mr. de Fellenberg, and have placed it, if I am rightly informed, under the patronage of Washington's name.

A third kind of institution was owing to the indefatigable zeal of Mr. de Fellenberg. This was a classical college, or boarding school for the sons of opulent and aristocratic families. His aim was this: He would give to the sons of the great a more manly, more complete education than that which they usually receive. He placed this college by the side of his School for the Poor, in order to inspire all his pupils with feelings of equality and fraternity. He proposed also, by bringing under a common discipline, and under the same course of studies, youths from all parts of Europe and the world,—he proposed, I say, to destroy that narrow, exclusive feeling which makes us despise foreigners, and to strengthen the ties between nations.

The methods of instruction adopted by Mr. de Fellenberg were borrowed from the system of the celebrated Pestalozzi. He sought to cultivate the reasoning faculty more than the memory, and the heart more than the understanding. He inculcated upon his pupils the habit of thinking for themselves, for he was persuaded that this is the most important element in intellectual culture.

Pupils flocked from all quarters. At one time, there were at Hofwyl seventeen young princes, who came to learn, better than in courts, how to govern nations. Twenty-two professors, of whom some are now in the most celebrated universities of Germany, gave lectures in this classical seminary, and statesmen came to see it and report to their sovereigns. Count de Capo-d'Istria, among others, was sent to Hofwyl, in 1814, by the emperor Alexander, and gave so satisfactory an account that the Muscovite czar appointed Mr. de Fellenberg knight of St. Wladimir.

But this prosperity did not last long. Its highest point of splendor was attained in 1819. At this time the despotic governments fancied danger from the edu-



cation given at Hofwyl. The cabinet of Austria forbade its subjects to go to foreign colleges. Some princes who had at first testified great confidence in Mr. de Fellenberg, judged that their children should not be educated with the sons of merchants and children of the common order!

But he was not discouraged. He opened in 1830, a school, which he called in German phrase, a 'Real-school,' because it was designed principally to teach the positive sciences, 'realities.' Lastly, in the latter part of his life, he founded an 'infant school,' in order to complete the whole series of his institutions, and to meet the wants of every age of human life, as he had met those of every condition.

Death surprised him in the midst of his benevolent works. The activity of Mr. de Fellenberg was beyond conception. He held an extensive correspondence with the most celebrated persons in Europe. He published for several years a periodical paper entitled: 'Journal of Hofwyl.' He wrote books upon agriculture and upon education, without neglecting for a day the superintendence of his large establishments, and the prosecution of his other numerous plans.

Three times he offered to give up to the State his institutions, with the farm of Hofwyl, and at a price not half their true value.

As a speaker, Mr. de Fellenberg was rather embarrassed and diffuse, but forcible; as a writer, his style was incorrect, but full of ideas. He was most distinguished as a man of action. In his private life, he was plain, resolute and self-controlled. His name will long be a blessing, and posterity will preserve the memory of what he has done to meliorate and elevate the condition of the common people in the nineteenth century.—*N. York Observer.*

In society, the object of conversation is of course entertainment and improvement, and it must therefore be adapted to the circle in which it is carried on, and must be neither too high nor too deep for the party at large, so that every one may contribute his share, just at his pleasure, and to the best of his ability.—*Art of Conv.*

### Scientific Survey of the State of New York.

It has always been a matter of regret, to the friends of the people, that the interesting and valuable discoveries of science remain to so great an extent unknown to the public. Men of science are proverbially patriotic and philanthropic, and have, in all ages, sought to diffuse the knowledge which they have most prized, although gained by the greatest labor and expense. This most creditable wish, so generally felt by the true friends of science, has in some measure been gratified by the academies, schools and publications established or supported by them. One of the most important means adopted in this country is what we know by the name of 'Scientific Surveys;' and this is a subject worthy of more particular attention than it has received from many of our countrymen. Much has been written upon it we are aware, and more has been said: but yet, so much of importance has been done, which is not yet generally known or fully appreciated, that we cannot but regret to come to the conclusion, that our public writers have not done full justice to it, or to the men who have displayed much learning and research in its prosecution.

A few years ago the legislature of this state authorised a scientific survey of our territory, appointed some of the most eminent naturalists in different departments and appropriated considerable sums of money to pay the expenses. The state has now been traversed and examined, reports have been made, accepted and printed, and we have already eleven volumes, elegant quartos, abounding in facts and illustrated by hundreds of engravings, representing the rocky strata, and other geological features, with the plants, insects, reptiles, fish, birds and beasts inhabiting the land and water. The descriptions partake of the popular style, to a considerable extent, in order that the common reader may not be debarred from the perusal, by language too strictly technical. The last volumes are soon to appear, and then we shall have, complete, a library of facts, relating to our own territory, whose value it would be difficult to over-estimate. And now, as it would be out of our power to give even a sketch of the various matter contained in these

comprehensive volumes, in the short space allowed us, let us consider, for a few moments, the practical advantages of a publication like this, to the inhabitants of New York, and the adjacent states.

According to many of the best judges, the most effectual way to begin the study of nature, is in the objects immediately around us. This is certainly the most natural way, and usually the most agreeable and effectual. Though some have doubted the soundness of this course, when pursued in colleges, universities, &c., there probably will be no question on the subject, when reference is had to persons in common circumstances. Is it not interesting, to consider the benefits which may be derived from the perusal of these books, by intelligent persons, in all parts of the state? What an encouragement is offered to those who would make observations or inquiries! What incitements to the mind, when all desirable information is at hand respecting every object that can be discovered, "in air, on earth, or under ground!"

Does the farmer wish to know the real value, and proper use of his soil? Would he settle any question concerning the nature of the rocks below the surface; or of those which may be in the second or third range: whether there be any probability of ores, lime, coal, salt or plaster? Here is Professor Mather ready to accompany him, perhaps with a section of the strata he wishes to enquire about, already drawn, colored and described; and he finds some information also on points he may never have thought of—of marble-beds, or alluvion, or porcelain clay, which may enrich him and his posterity.

And so we might point out many ways in which the practical man may become richer by the aid of information in this and other sciences, abounding in these volumes: for in some we have the results of a quarter of a century of study by Dr. Dekay, and of many months investigation on the spot, with everything he can tell us of the animals and birds inhabiting or visiting the territory between Montauk Point and Lake Erie; and if, we would ask questions about plants of any kinds, Dr. Torrey appears, in two noble quartos, and offers to tell us a thousand things, which scarcely any other man on earth knows as well, about plants of every sort, from the minute moss or sea-

weed on our coast, to the tallest oaks and pines in the forests.

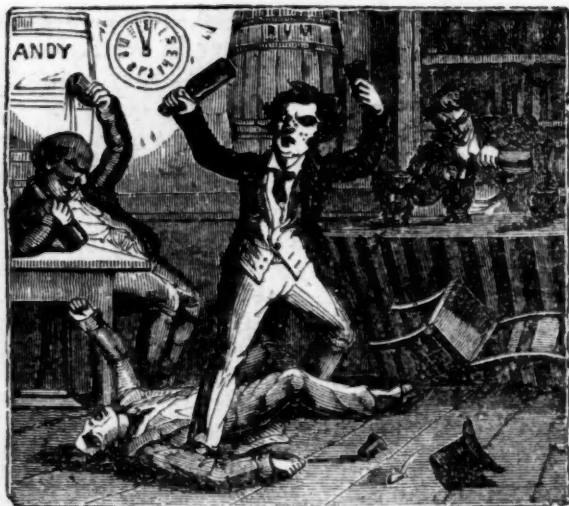
But every man of sense and spirit will feel the force of our appeal, when we say, that each reader of these volumes will find his mind enriched, whether he derive any great immediate pecuniary advantages or not. When we point at the size, position and various advantages enjoyed by our state, and remind the reader that he is bound to become one of those men of intelligence who alone are fit to belong to it, he must acknowledge that we speak but the plain truth: for the public and the private interest both demand the cultivation of the mind of every individual.

We have abridged the following general remarks, on the geographical features of our state, from the introduction to the zoological part of the work, by Dr. Dekay. It will be found beginning in the middle of the first volume, following a long preface from the pen of Governor Seward, which contains many details on matters interesting in themselves, but not appropriate to a work of the kind.

American quadrupeds have attracted but little attention, Dr. Dekay remarks, until within a short period; and were then, at first only noticed by foreigners. The few Americans who afterwards began to procure specimens, sent most of them abroad, where only they found them appreciated. De Liancourt, De Chastellux, and some other mere travelers, did much; and such scientific explorers as Bosc, Kalm, Micheaux and Pal de Beauvois have done much more. The Philadelphia Academy of Natural History, the Lyceum of New York, and other scientific societies in Boston, New Haven and Salem, have accomplished much since their formation; and the American Journal of Science and the Arts, established and conducted by Professor Silliman, has powerfully contributed to the cultivation of Zoological study and research, as well as to the advancement of other branches. It probably might be added, without the hazard of contradiction, that the survey of our state and several others, and a large part of the most valuable pages published in the Report of the Antarctic Expedition, are due to influences commenced by the above enlightened associations.

(To be Concluded.)





THE END OF MODERATE DRINKING.

This is true, in the two senses in which the words may be taken: such a scene as this is the natural result of drinking moderately, and alas, too often, the only way in which it ceases.

Not long since a person in refined life objected to the multiplication of tales of intemperance for the young, on the ground that they shock and disgust the reader. But how much better, will it be for us and others, if by timely precaution we may be secured against the far greater evil: the reality! The state of our land, the practices prevailing in society, and the opinions of many in influential stations, unhappily demand continued and indefatigable exertions from the friends of temperance, to eradicate the evil: although in some parts of our country, and in the state of New York particularly, the general triumph of temperance has been accomplished.

However little we may be willing to confess it, intoxicating drinks are not deprived of their nature by the cautious use of any quantity, however small. A little more than a little makes much, or, at least, a few steps of increase will reach an injurious quantity; and many a cautious draught in the evening has led to a scene like that above depicted before the hour of night has arrived, which is indicated by the clock. How such a picture,

(disgusting as well as shocking to the feelings, but no less faithful on that account,) should revive our apprehensions of the dangers to which so many of the young around us are still exposed, and stimulate us to new exertions!

The various places in many of our towns and villages, where temptations to drink are offered to the young, should be regarded as establishments set up in opposition to the family, its guardian influences, and its pure enjoyments. Many a man, of different ages and stations, even many a youth with the highest advantages and most favorable prospects, has been drawn away from friends and home, and soon acted a horrible part in the tavern, the porter house, the billiard room, the oyster cellar, or some other place where intemperance is taught, although under another name. We would add here in brief, what we intend to present hereafter more at length, that every parent is solemnly called upon, by the dangers which beset the paths of his sons, to use great and untiring exertions to make home attractive, and especially in winter evenings; that every neighbor is called upon to take part in cultivating pure and enlightened intercourse among the young around him; and that philanthropists ought to provide reading-rooms, libraries, &c. for the public good.





LORD BROUGHAM.

This distinguished English statesman has for many years occupied a very honorable and prominent station among the active promoters of public education in various forms. If we mistake not, he began his career as an advocate of popular literary and scientific institutions soon after the establishment of Apprentices' Libraries in England—a step of great importance, and due to one of our own countrymen, Mr. Wm. Wood of Canandaigua, well known as the originator of them in the United States, as well as by various other philanthropic enterprises. Whether Mr. Brougham received his impulse or his hints from the success of the Apprentices' Libraries, we are not able to say: but he has labored many years in founding and assisting, in various ways, institutions of a kindred nature,

but generally of a more comprehensive plan. Among these one established some years ago in Birmingham, was eminently useful. In return for the benevolent and sagacious scheme devised, to reach persons of every class, and especially the workman employed in the manufactories, the greatest interest was in a short time expressed by the poor as well as the rich, and the intellectual, as well as the moral results were most extensive and favorable.

Some years since, while on a visit to that city, we found the path, which we were pursuing one evening, in search of the country residence of a friend, lined by fenced gardens, of such small size that it was difficult to account for their design. On enquiry we learned that they belonged to the laborers or operatives,

and had been granted under certain conditions, requiring their tillage, &c. It proved that this was made a part of the system adopted by the managers of a society; and that whoever pleased might easily obtain a little spot of ground, with seeds of vegetables, flowers, &c., brief instructions for cultivating them, and an opportunity to compete with others, far and near, in presenting the earliest and finest products of the garden in the market: high prices being offered as a stimulus. How kind and how wise are plans like this; and how advantageously might they be introduced, multiplied, varied and perpetuated among us! But the chief step is taken when they have once been judiciously and successfully set in operation. They will do much to perpetuate as well as to extend themselves. One interesting fact will attest this remark. The Brooklyn Lyceum, from its early days, has found disinterested, efficient and persevering assistance from two or three members of the Birmingham association, who had become residents of our sister city.

Lord Brougham has owed much of his success to his own personal labors: he has for years taken an active part in the proceedings of the associations near him, and thus set an example well worthy of imitation.

#### Rural Architecture.

"In a new country, the first objects of attention are the 'simple necessities' of life. As improvements progress, and accumulate, the opportunity and means are afforded, to add conveniences, comforts and ornaments. In the first settlement of a country, the buildings are necessarily rude and inconvenient; but, as soon as the means are at hand, domestic demands will be met by improved dwellings and other buildings. The republican equality of our institutions offers to all the opportunity of being the proprietors of their own houses; and it culti-

vates a laudable ambition to enjoy the independence of such a position; and the unfettered freedom and general intelligence of our citizens afford the greatest opportunities for the cultivation of the finer feeling of our institutions. As naturally as plants assume the ornaments of flowers, do human beings adorn their persons and appendages, to gratify their innate faculty of perceiving and appreciating beauty, which faculty is called taste.

"Our mental and physical tastes are equally the product of Divine Power and Wisdom, and equally designed by the Creator to be exercised in lawful gratifications: hence æthetics, or the science of beauty, is as legitimate a study as the culinary art."—*The Architect.*

#### THE INDIAN DEED OF STATEN ISLAND.

Among the donations presented at one of the late meetings of the N. Y. Historical Society, was a part of the original Indian Deed to Lord Lovelace, for the Duke of York, of Staten Island. The half of one leaf of the deed which bears date April 13th, 1670, was missing, but Mr. Samuel Hazard, the donor, remarked that he enclosed a copy of the deed when entire, made by his father during the revolution. Mr. Gibbs the Librarian said that the society had for a long time been in possession of the lost sheet, so that the perfectness of the deed will be restored.

The payment agreed upon for the purchase of Staten Island, from the Indian Sachem appears to have been:

1. Four hundred fathom of Wampum.
2. Thirty Match coats. 3. Eight coats of Duzzem made up. 4. Thirty shirts.
5. Thirty Kettles. 6. Twenty Gunnes.
7. A firkin of Powder. 8. Sixty Barres of Lead.
9. Thirty axes.
10. Thirty Howes.
11. Fifty Knives.



### Rural Cemeteries.

The improvements made in this country, within a few years, in the places of interment, are among those which we may regard with the highest gratification mingled with the least regret. For a long time, and in many places, there had been too much reason to lament the neglect of burial grounds in villages, and the small size and crowded condition of those in cities. About fifteen years since, the Mount Auburn Cemetery was formed at Cambridge, Boston; and, although the distance was thought by many an insuperable objection, the advantages of the plan have been proved to universal satisfaction, and the example has been imitated by several other cities, and by some towns of second and third rank in population. Men of judgment and taste have directed the laying out and decorating of these sad, but interesting retreats; and the changes in public opinion and feelings which have been produced, are, to a great extent, reasonable and commendable. We here and there observe some indications of a love of display, or some evidence of bad taste: but perhaps less of both than might have been expected, from the novelty of the subject, the want of proper guides and hints, and the numerous inappropriate and bad examples, in those times and countries to which we naturally turn for instruction.

Although we may find, among the numerous specimens and records of the funeral rites and sepulchral monuments of the Greeks and Romans, some ideas applicable to our use, and among their inscriptions some expressions appropriate to our opinions and feelings, their heathen views rendered almost every thing connected with their cemeteries inconsistent with Christian doctrines, and little can be obtained from them fitted to our religion, beyond the forms or proportions of pedestals, columns or tablets. The altars, urns and vases, so much in

use with them, have no meaning or propriety in a land where the dead are neither burned nor worshipped; and any great display in the decoration of tombs or graves is discountenanced by the examples of the patriarchs and the early Christians, as well as by the reproofs given to the Pharisees by the Saviour, which have associated the practice of such ostentation with the character of hypocrisy and irreligion.

On the other hand, the prevailing customs of many later ages have few hints to offer worthy of being followed. The cellars of churches in Europe are, to a great extent, the receptacles of the dead, which are often thrown in naked through openings made by raising stones in the floor, and there left uncovered, under the belief that the place is sanctified, and will render the lot of the soul more happy. The emblems often sculptured on the marble monuments so numerous in Italy and some other countries, have meanings quite irreconcilable with the views of Protestants, and can never be copied by us while we are acquainted with their allusions, and not indifferent to the principles which we profess.

These remarks have been suggested by a handsome and valuable work just published in this city, by Messrs. Bartlett and Welford, entitled, "Designs for Monuments and Rural Tablets," adapted to Rural Cemeteries, Church-yards, churches and chapels, by Jay Smith, one of the founders of Laurel Hill Cemetery, Philadelphia." It contains about one hundred drawings, of different kinds and sizes, original and copied, of objects requiring illustration, properly embraced in the scope of the work: as plans of cemeteries, tombs, monuments, &c. &c., which, accompanied by the descriptions and suggestions, will soon put the reader in possession of the information he may desire.

The work is introduced by a "Preliminary Essay, on the laying out, plant-

ing and managing of cemeteries, and on the improvements of church-yards, on the basis of Loudon's work." This part comprises many suggestions on these several points, which will be found instructive. The work is designed to present, in a brief, convenient and cheap form, all that is deemed appropriate to our circumstances comprised in foreign publications; and the public are thus furnished, at the moderate price of three dollars and a half, with what they could not have obtained, without consulting a number of large and scarce works, whose cost would probably amount to eighty or an hundred dollars. But these are by no means the most valuable portions of the volume before us. Some of the original suggestions, intended and well-fitted for our own country, are still more worthy of our attention; and, as they will doubtless be maturely considered by those hereafter to be employed in planning and arranging future cemeteries in the United States, they may be expected to prove of extensive practical benefit.

One might perhaps presume, that all the important facts and suggestions which could be presented, under the heads above specified, must be few: but the reader will find them quite numerous; and, although expressed with much brevity, they occupy a number of the broad and capacious pages of the work. Among those which seem worthy of special attention are the following:

The author thinks we have made improvements even on the most improved European plans of cemeteries. More attention is paid here to planting and detail, and coffins are never exposed to view through iron gratings, as is sometimes done in Europe. Some errors have been made in placing cemeteries on the south, instead of the north sides of cities, and in taking a clay soil, in which every excavation forms a cistern to hold water.

"The main object of a burial ground

is, the disposal of the remains of the dead in such a manner, that their decomposition, and return to the earth from which they spring, shall not prove injurious to the living, either by affecting their health, or by shocking their feelings, affections or prejudices. A secondary object, but still an important one, is, or ought to be, the improvement of the moral sentiment and general taste of all classes, and more especially of the great masses of society."

The feelings should never be shocked by exposing a coffin to view after it has once been interred. This is now secured to none but the Jews, who have separate graves, which are never re-opened. Cemeteries should be distant from dwellings, but not so far as to render the access difficult or expensive. The size should be proportioned to the population. Eight feet by four, is the average surface necessary for graves with stones; and, as the average of deaths is two per cent. in healthy country-places, and three per cent. in cities, the proper extent of a cemetery may be easily calculated for any population.

A main avenue should afford a convenient access to every part, and branch gravel walks should be planned with a view to convenience, variety and picturesque effect. No part of the grounds should be exclusively appropriated to any particular class of society, or kind of monuments. A broad border, from 12 to 20 feet wide, should be kept on each side of the main avenue; one from 8 to 12 feet on each gravel-walk; and green alleys should be laid out between the compartments into which the sections are divided. Next the boundary of the grounds should be a border of grass, of a breadth equal to the height of the wall or fence. Suggestions are also made on providing for the keeping of the grounds, the manner of conducting funerals, and many other details which we have not room to specify.



### **The Diseases, Decay and Preservation of Timber.**

At the first meeting of the N. York Agricultural Society this season, a paper was read by Ed. Clark, Esq., on timber, from which we prepared the following notes.

Mr. Clarke has paid practical attention to the qualities of different kinds of timber, the diseases to which they are liable and the means of preventing them. His memoir was brief but comprehensive, and gave, what he designed to give, brief, practical views of these different points.

1. *Kinds of Timber.*—These he ranged as follows, according to their value and use: Oak, pine, chestnut, cedar, cypress and locust. Of the 140 species of oak known, but a few are esteemed for timber, under the methods of preparation now practised. The new means to be proposed, if successful, will be applicable to many other species. White oak is at present the most solid, strong and durable of our trees. When it grows alone, the timber is more solid and valuable, than when taken from the forest. When standing near the sea, or in any way supplied with soda instead of potash, white oak is much less liable to decay. The slowness of growth is another circumstance favorable to its durability. The same remarks may be also applied to the chestnut.

Timber is often brought to this city in a state of partial decay, and bought and used in house and ship-building at the price of sound, because more easily wrought. With what condemnation should such a dangerous practice be regarded! Unseasoned timber is in very general use here, and the evil consequences are so extensive, that it may be questioned where we shall look for a new house, whose floor timbers have not shrunk, so as to make apertures, for the admission of air and the passage of rats and mice. But, when decaying timber

is used in the construction of ships, by which property and lives are exposed to destruction in the ocean, what apology can be found? The government should take measures to prevent such mismanagement, and to guard against the serious evils to which merchant ships are exposed, as well as the navy.

But even a systematic inspection could not secure all the advantages desirable. Immense losses are constantly incurred by the rapid decay of timber; and it is an object of great importance, to different classes of people, to secure it from decay. For this purpose the pores of the wood should be deprived of the matter they contain most liable to decomposition, and filled with imperishable and antiseptic materials. Various substances have been proposed, and Mr. Clark has made experiments with many of them. Cheapness of materials, of course, is one of the most important qualities next to efficacy. Metallic salts are preferable on this account; and Mr. Clark recommends that timber be soaked in vats, containing water impregnated with such substances, or placed in airtight receivers, partly filled with appropriate solutions, and exhausted of air.

A secondary, but yet very important advantage gained by preparing wood in this manner, is that it often becomes nearly if not quite incombustible. The substances most likely to be used in filling the pores of timber, are solids, destitute of gases, and neither easily decomposable by heat, nor likely to burn under any circumstances. Houses or ships constructed of timber thus prepared, would be virtually safe from fire: for, even if the woody fibre should become ignited in one part, the progress of ignition must be very slow and feeble, and of course easily arrested.

It is truly surprising that so important a subject has received so little attention. It is one in which every individual may justly think himself in some degree inte-

rested: for we all inhabit houses, if we do not all trust our lives to the doubtful soundness of ships, or build fences liable to be injured by decay. The ancients made experiments with success, in injecting the pores of wood with various antiseptic substances; and modern science has not yet succeeded in taking any important practical step beyond them.

The mode of operation in the air-tight receivers proposed by Mr. Clark, we will briefly describe before we dismiss this subject. The main practical difficulty, at first thought, appears to be in procuring receivers of the proper size and strength: but this, we presume, might be easily surmounted, and at a moderate expense.

The timber is to be placed in a chamber, so constructed as to be air-tight on all sides when closed. Let the chamber then be filled with water, containing, in solution, the substance to be introduced into its pores; when, by an opening at the bottom, communicating with a tank partly full of the same, let as much of the fluid pass off as would go, by hydrostatic pressure. A vacuum would thus be left in the upper part of the chamber; and the air imprisoned in the pores of the wood would begin to escape, and bubble up through the water. The atmosphere might then be let in, and its pressure would force the fluid into the empty pores. In some cases such a process is to be repeated—always where two substances are to be united in the wood: as, to fill the pores with sulphate of lime, a solution of muriate of lime may first be applied, and then one of sulphate of iron.

Franklin says, that you must never contradict in conversation, nor correct facts if wrongly stated. This is going much too far: you must never contradict in a short, direct, or positive tone; but with politeness, you may easily, when necessary, express a difference of opinion in a graceful and even complimentary manner.—*Art of Conversation.*

### A Western Steamer.

If a stranger should ask us to point him out some object displaying the progress of the West, in improvement, we would triumphantly direct his attention to our magnificent steamer Missouri, which, in her vast proportions, beauty of model, and luxurious appointments, presents a striking evidence of our progress during the past twenty-eight years. In a walk through her spacious cabin, it is hard to divest one's self of the idea that the foot is not treading the hall of some regal palace, so finished is everything around; elegant carpets, splendid chandeliers, and sumptuous furniture, with all the additions which studied attention can devise for comfort, ease and luxury. Her saloon, when thrown open, from her office in the bow to the stern windows, is one of the most imposing on any vessel in the world. Its extreme length is three hundred and five feet, by eighteen wide and twelve high, and throughout is finished in a most superb and costly style. Seventy-three feet of this length shuts off with beautiful folding doors, separating the ladies' saloon from the gentlemen's cabin, and is furnished with an elegant piano. In this apartment Capt. Twitchell has recently made a pleasing improvement; he has removed the bulk-head in the rear of the ladies' saloon, supplied its place by curtains, and constructed large stern windows of beautifully colored plate glass, through which a soft and mellow light falls into the ladies' apartment. When the heat is oppressive, these windows can be thrown open, leaving a free passage of air through the entire length of the cabin. Her sleeping apartments are furnished with every comfort which can be found in the best regulated hotels, are well ventilated, and kept scrupulously neat. Bath houses, for ladies and gentlemen, supplied with hot and cold water; gentlemen's barber shop, servant's apartments, and, indeed, every necessary and luxury which can tend to pleasant travelling, comfort of invalids, pleasure of the tourist, or ease of the man of leisure, are here concentrated in a floating palace. Her cook is a prince in the culinary art, and her steward is an epicure in taste: so of course the table abounds in everything that can tempt the appetite.

This majestic boat is propelled by two



powerful high pressure engines, each a twenty-nine inch cylinder, twelve feet stroke and six hundred horse power. Her wheels are thirty-six feet in diameter, and her steam is generated in seven boilers, twenty-nine feet long, and forty-two inches in diameter—double flues. She has an extra engine for supplying her boilers with water, and working her fire engines, and her speed is unequalled. The engines of the Missouri are under the care of tried and experienced engineers—men who know their capacity, and are familiar by long study with their business. Her helm is guided by Capt. O'Hara, one of the best pilots on the Mississippi river; and over all the quiet and gentlemanly Capt. Twitchell presides, watching each department with the scrutiny of a strict disciplinarian, and ensuring by his attention and care to every department of his boat, that safety and security, which permit the passenger to enjoy the comforts and luxuries with which he is surrounded.—*St. Louis paper.*

#### How the Polynesians become Swimmers.

One day I had repaired to the stream for the purpose of bathing, when I observed a woman sitting upon a rock in the midst of the current, and watching with the liveliest interest the gambols of something, which at first I took to be an uncommonly large species of frog, that was sporting in the water near her. Attracted by the novelty of the sight, I waded towards the spot where she sat, and could hardly credit the evidence of my senses when I beheld a little infant, the period of whose birth could not have extended back many days, paddling about as if it had just risen to the surface, after being hatched into existence at the bottom. Occasionally, the delighted parent reached out her hands towards it, when the little thing, uttering a faint cry, and striking out its tiny limbs, would sidle for the rock, and the next moment be clasped to its mother's bosom. This was repeated again and again, the baby remaining in the stream about a minute at a time. Once or twice it made wry faces at swallowing a mouthful of water, and choked and spluttered as if on the point of strangling. For several weeks afterwards I observed this woman bringing her child down to the stream regu-

larly every day, in the cool of the morning and evening, and treating it to a bath. No wonder that the South Sea Islanders are so amphibious a race, when they are thus launched into the water as soon as they see the light.—*Melville's Residence in the Marquesas.*

#### Care of Young Trees.

Trees that have been set last fall should be protected in some way against the winter winds. When the ground is frozen hard they will stand firm, but before that they need a prop, and in spring they will need the same.

As it is not prudent to keep straw or litter about the trunks through the winter; and, as stakes prove injurious by fretting and lacerating the bark, to say nothing of the cost of procuring them, we advise you to support them through the winter by a bank of earth, in case the soil is already rich enough, and if it is not, then by a wheelbarrow full of manure that it is not so strawy as to invite the mice to make nests. The manure that is made at the sink drain—suds, ashes, and such matter intermixed, is better in such cases than any.

Peat muck is excellent to be intermixed, for it keeps the earth more moist through the succeeding summer than any kind of highland earth; and this muck should be used on setting the trees, but it should be dug long before it is used that it may become fine and mingle readily with the other soil.

On setting young trees a cavity is often left about the trunk where water stands and freezes. This is injurious to all kinds of trees, and should never be permitted. Earth or manure should always be piled around young trees in the fall, if for nothing else but to prevent the accumulation of ice around the roots.

Cattle must not be permitted to approach a young tree. They never trim well, and have no right to meddle with orchards. Hogs are better stock to take care of trees; and even hogs must be watched.

Fall is a good time to dig muck to be used next spring where trees are to be set—and that is a leisure time when almost every farmer can procure this material to be used on any of his lands next season. November is not too late if the ground is not too wet.—*Ploughman.*

## POETRY.

*For the American Magazine.**Early morning.*

Leave your beds and homes of ease,  
And take a walk among the trees :  
For many a pleasant shade is found  
In this wild, secluded ground.

Here are beauties art ne'er gave :  
Music from the rill and wave,  
Whispering pines, the wood-doves call,  
The echo and the waterfall.

Here the breezes, fluttering by,  
Singing through the branches dry,  
With the Woodpecker's time agree,  
Tapping on the hollow tree.

Lovely sights no less can please ;  
Flowery glades among the trees,  
Where the sunbeams, streaming down,  
Gild the ancient rock, so brown.

May for me the axe long spare  
Beauties that are cluster'd here ;  
And these scenes all sacred be  
To peace and love, and piety !

*Daily Work.*

Who lags when labor should be done  
And his appointed task would shun,  
Commits a folly and a crime ;  
A soulless slave—  
A paltry knave—  
A clog upon the wheels of time.  
With work to do, and store of health,  
The man's unworthy to be free  
Who will not give,  
That he may live,  
His daily toil for daily fee.

No ! Let us work ! We only ask  
Reward proportioned to our task ;  
We have no quarrel with the great ;  
No feud with rank—  
With mill or bank—  
No envy of a lord's estate.  
If we can earn sufficient store  
To satisfy our daily need,  
And can retain,  
For age and pain,  
A fraction, we are rich indeed.

No dread of toil have we or ours.  
We know our worth, and weigh our powers ;  
The more we work the more we win ;  
Success to trade !  
Success to spade !  
And to the corn that's coming in !  
And joy to him, who, o'er his task,  
Remembers toil is nature's plan ;  
Who, working, thinks—  
And never sinks  
His independence as a man.

Who only asks for humblest wealth,  
Enough for competence and health ;  
And leisure, when his work is done,  
To read his book,  
By chimney nook,  
Or stroll at setting of the sun ;  
Who toils, as every man should toil  
For fair reward, erect and free ;  
These are the men—  
The best of men—  
These are the men we mean to be !

[Selected.]

ENIGMA.—No. 30.—BY A YOUNG LADY.

I am composed of 17 letters.

My 13, 2, 3, is a kind of food given to children.

My 12, 3, 13, 5, 17, is a fruit common in America.

My 9, 7, 11, 8, is a part of the body of every animal.

My 16, 15, 14, 3, is that by which we rid ourselves of troublesome quadrupeds.

My 8, 2, 13, is what people are inclined to take when they are sleepy.

My 9, 6, 12, 15, is a wild and ferocious animal.

My 13, 14, 1, is an appendage to the grate.

My 15, 4, 10, 16, is a part of nearly every plant.

My whole was a man remarkable for his ambition.  
E. T.

*Solution of Enigma No. 29, Vol. III. p. 32.*  
Cuidad, Unsl, Man, Ballina, Escamla, Ridean, Lena. Ama, Nubia, Duna Island, Sanilac, Lima, Aral, Nain, Dan.—Cumberland Island.  
M. F. ZUTWILER.

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